Interference of Two Beams:1

After passing through the two separate arms of the interferometer we have two beams with amplitudes

$$A_1 = \cos(kx_1 - kct)$$

$$A_2 = \cos(kx_2 - kct)$$

where $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ is the wavenumber, x_1 and x_2 are the optical path lengths in the two sides of the interferometer, t is the time and c is the speed of light. We mix the two signals and detect the time averaged intensity:

$$I = \overline{(A_1 + A_2)^2}$$

$$= \overline{\cos^2(kx_1 - kct)} + \overline{2\cos(kx_1 - kct)\cos(kx_2 - kct)} + \overline{\cos^2(kx_2 - kct)}$$

$$= 1 + 2\overline{[\cos(kx_1)\cos(kct) + \sin(kx_1)\sin(kct)][\cos(kx_2)\cos(kct) + \sin(kx_2)\sin(kct)]}$$

$$= 1 + \cos(kx_1)\cos(kx_2) + \sin(kx_1)\sin(kx_2)$$

$$= 1 + \cos(k(x_1 - x_2))$$

If we define the optical path length difference to be $\triangle OPD = x_1 - x_2$ and add the visibility function for the object V(k) we get, at a single wavelength,

$$I(\nu) \ = \ 1 + V(\nu) \cos(2\pi\nu \, \Delta \text{OPD})$$

where we now use the wavenumber $\nu = \frac{1}{\lambda}$.

Interference of Two Beams:2

In a real detector there will be a finite bandpass, say from $\nu_0 - \frac{\Delta\nu}{2}$ to $\nu_0 + \frac{\Delta\nu}{2}$ and so we have to integrate over this (assumed flat) bandpass:

$$I(\nu_0, \Delta \nu) = \frac{1}{\Delta \nu} \int_{\nu_0 - \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}}^{\nu_0 + \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}} (1 + V(\nu) \cos[2\pi \nu \, \Delta \text{OPD}]) \, d\nu$$
$$\simeq 1 + \frac{1}{\Delta \nu} V(\nu_0) \int_{\nu_0 - \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}}^{\nu_0 + \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}} \cos[2\pi \nu \, \Delta \text{OPD}] \, d\nu$$

We make the substitution

$$\eta = \nu - \nu_0$$

and the integral becomes

$$\mathcal{I} = \int_{\nu_0 - \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}}^{\nu_0 + \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}} \cos[2\pi\nu \,\Delta\text{OPD}] \,d\nu$$

$$= \int_{-\frac{\Delta \nu}{2}}^{+\frac{\Delta \nu}{2}} \cos[2\pi \,\Delta\text{OPD}(\nu_0 + \eta)] \,d\nu$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi \,\Delta\text{OPD}} \left[\sin\left(2\pi \,\Delta\text{OPD}\left[\nu_0 + \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}\right]\right) - \sin\left(2\pi \,\Delta\text{OPD}\left[\nu_0 - \frac{\Delta \nu}{2}\right]\right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi \,\Delta\text{OPD}} \left[2\cos(2\pi\nu_0 \,\Delta\text{OPD}) \sin\left(2\pi \,\Delta\text{OPD}\frac{\Delta \nu}{2}\right) \right]$$

thus the detected signal will be

$$I(\nu_0, \Delta \nu) = 1 + V(\nu_0) \frac{\sin(\pi \, \Delta \text{OPD} \, \Delta \nu)}{\pi \, \Delta \text{OPD} \, \Delta \nu} \cos(2\pi \nu_0 \, \Delta \text{OPD})$$

This has a maximum when $\triangle OPD = 0$ and has a first set of zeros at

$$\pi \Delta OPD \Delta \nu = \pm \pi$$

$$\Delta OPD = \frac{\pm 1}{\Delta \nu}$$

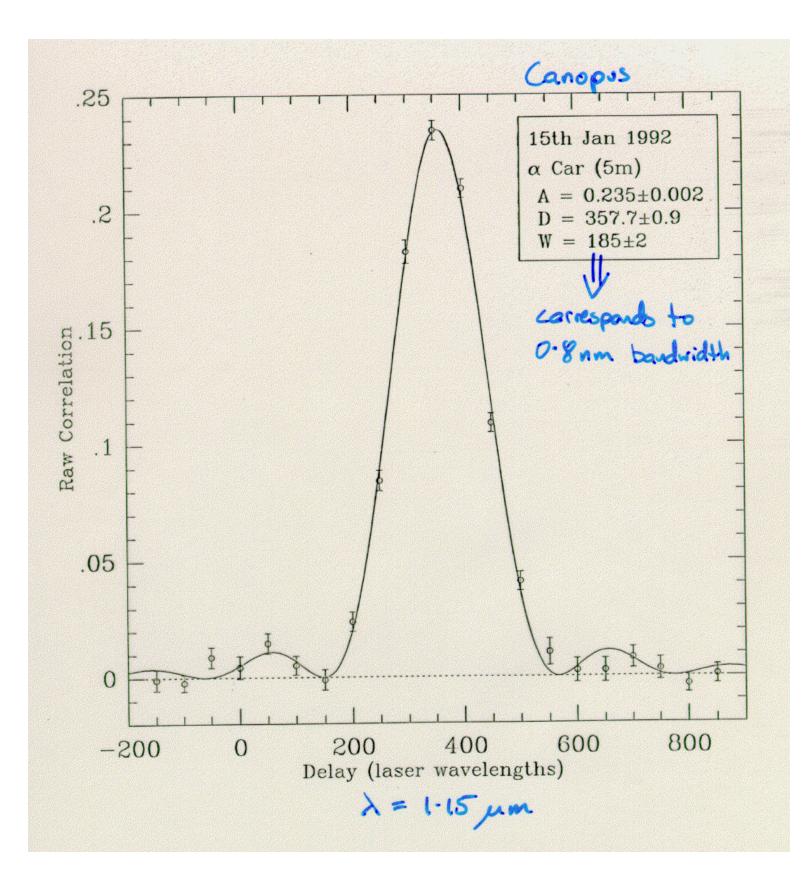
which means that the fringe coherence length will be $\frac{2}{\Delta\nu}$.

Fringe Equation

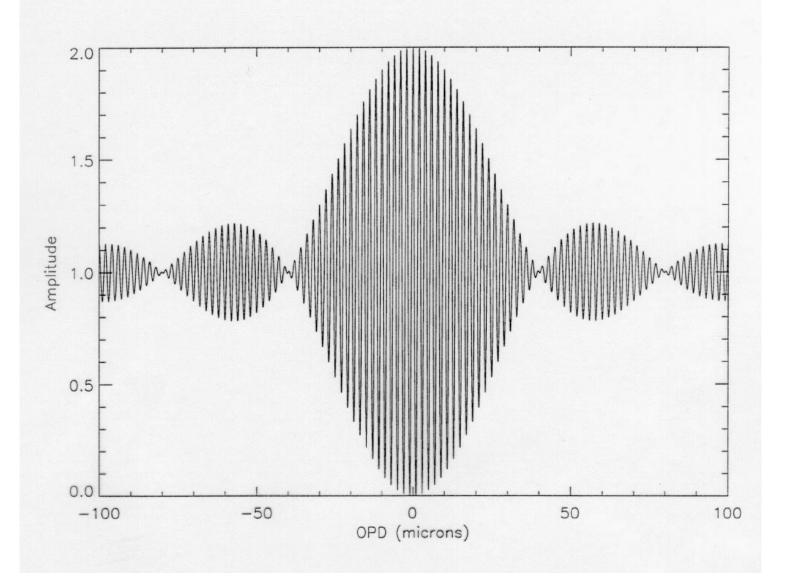
$$I(t,\nu) = 1 + V(t,\nu) \times \frac{\sin(\pi x(t,\nu) \Delta \nu)}{\pi x(t,\nu) \Delta \nu} \times \cos(2\pi x(t,\nu) \nu + \Phi_{\text{obj}} + \Phi_{\text{atm}}(t))$$

$$V(t, \nu) = V_{\rm obj} \times \eta_{\rm atm}(t) \times \eta_{\rm inst}$$

$$x(t,\nu) = B\cos(\theta(t)) + x_{\text{vac}}(t) + n_{\text{air}}(\nu)x_{\text{air}}(t) + n_{\text{glass}}(\nu)x_{\text{glass}}(t)$$

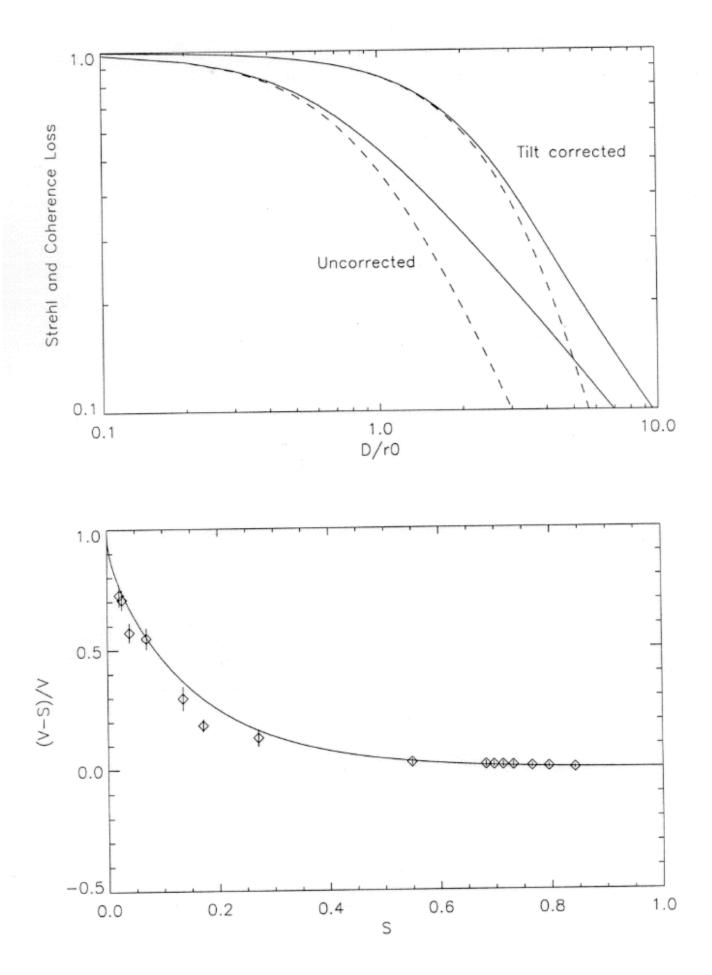


Center Wavelength = 2.0 micronBandwidth = 0.05 micron



Things to worry about:

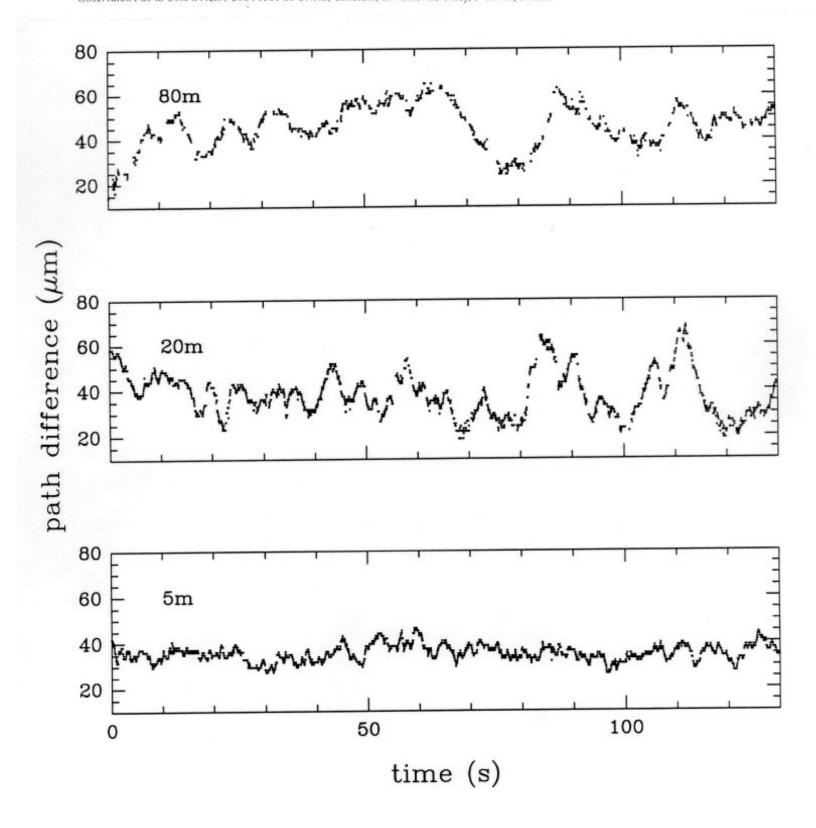
- Vibration
- Thermal stability
- Throughput
- Refraction (Angular)
- Polarization
- Dispersion (Linear)
- Diffraction
- Tip/tilt
- Higher order wavefront errors
- Optical path length equalization (OPLE)
- Logistics
- Fringe tracking
- Imaging (IR/Vis)



Atmospheric path variations for baselines up to 80 m measured with the Sydney University Stellar Interferometer

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Chatterton Astronomy Department, School of Physics, University of Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia

Table 1. Standard deviation of optical path length fluctuations $[\sigma_{opd}(x)]$ averaged from 50-s long data sets for three baselines.

Baseline (m)	$\sigma_{ t opd}(x) = (\mu m)$	Source	Number of data sets
5	4.6 ± 0.6	α CMa	24
20	8.4 ± 0.6	α Vir	10
80	11.4 ± 1.8	α Vir	9

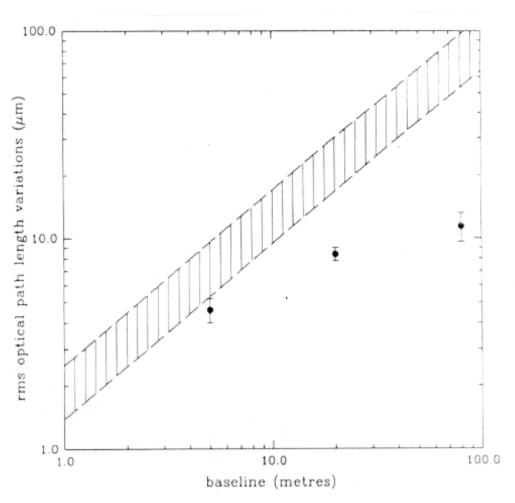
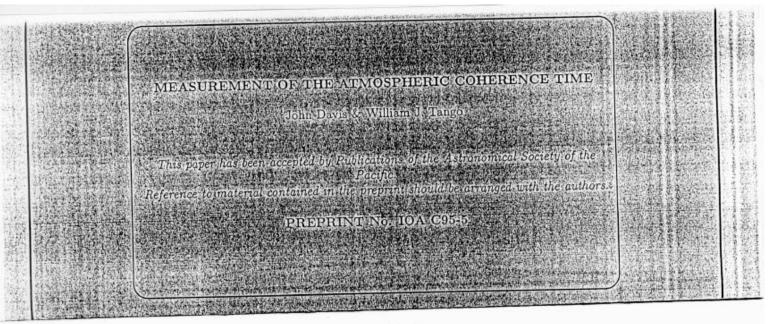


Figure 3. Root mean square optical path length fluctuations as a function of baseline. The three points are the measurements reported in this paper. The broken lines have the slope predicted for Kolmogorov turbulence with infinite outer scale, and represent the relationships for the extreme values of r_0 observed during the measurements of optical path variation. If the rms optical path variations were consistent with Kolmogorov statistics, the observed points would lie in the shaded area between the curves.



2.3. The Effect of Sampling Time

Based on the definition of coherence time given by Equation (1) it follows (Buscher, 1988) that, for small apertures (diameter $< r_0$), the time average of the correlation $\overline{C(\Delta t)}$ is given by

$$\frac{\overline{C(\Delta t)}}{C(0)} = \frac{2}{\Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} \left(1 - \frac{t}{\Delta t}\right) B(t) dt, \tag{2}$$

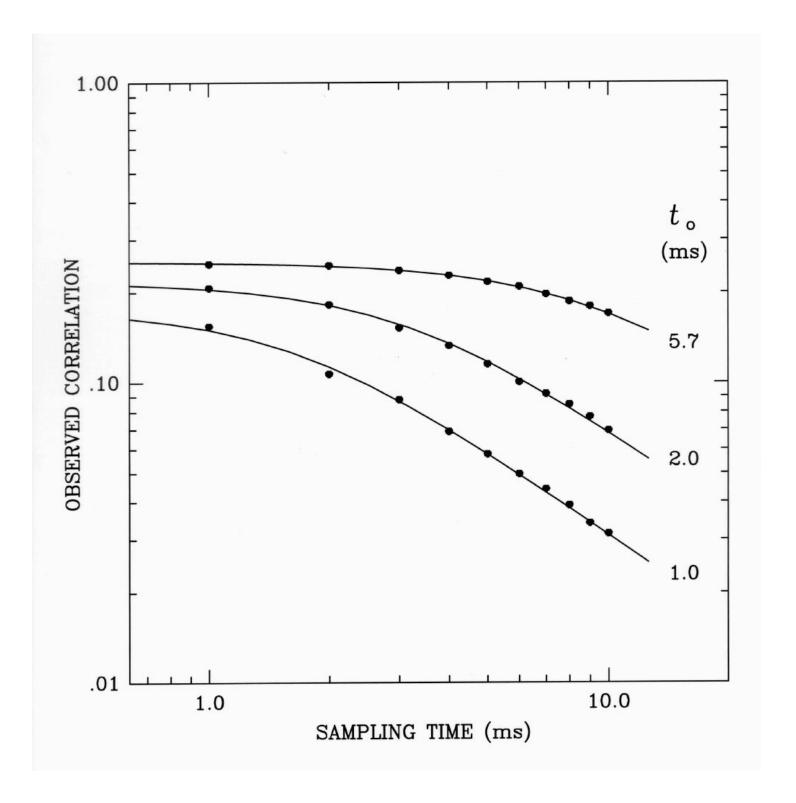
where C(0) is the correlation that would be measured with a sample time $\Delta t \ll t_0$.

It can be shown that the analytic expression for Equation (2) is

$$\frac{\overline{C(\Delta t)}}{C(0)} = \frac{6}{5\tau} \left[\gamma(3/5, \tau^{5/3}) - \tau^{-1} \gamma(6/5, \tau^{5/3}) \right], \tag{3}$$

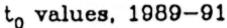
where $\tau = \Delta t/t_0$ and $\gamma(a, x)$ is a partial gamma function.

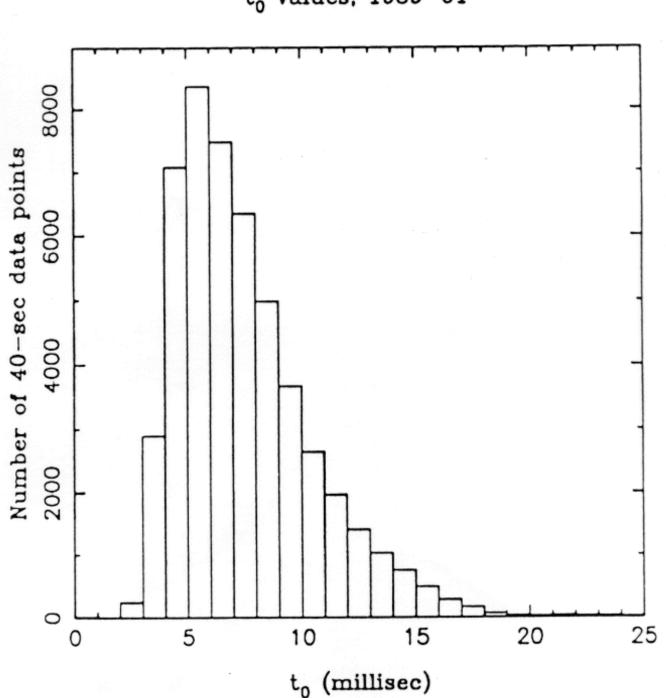
The ratio $\overline{C(\Delta t)}/C(0)$, which we call the "correlation loss factor", is shown as Figure 1 in Buscher (1988). It is plotted against sample time for a range of values of the coherence time in Fig. 1.



A Thousand and One Nights of Seeing on Mt Wilson

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Polarization

- Each reflection introduces a polarization change.
- Each polarization state 'sees' a different phase shift on reflections.
- Common strategies for avoiding these problems:
 - 1. Use a completely (or almost completely) symmetric optical layout.
 - 2. Separate polarizations in the beam combiner.
- This is something you can (hopefully) measure in order to calibrate it out.

POLARIZATION EFFECTS IN STELLAR INTERFEROMETERS

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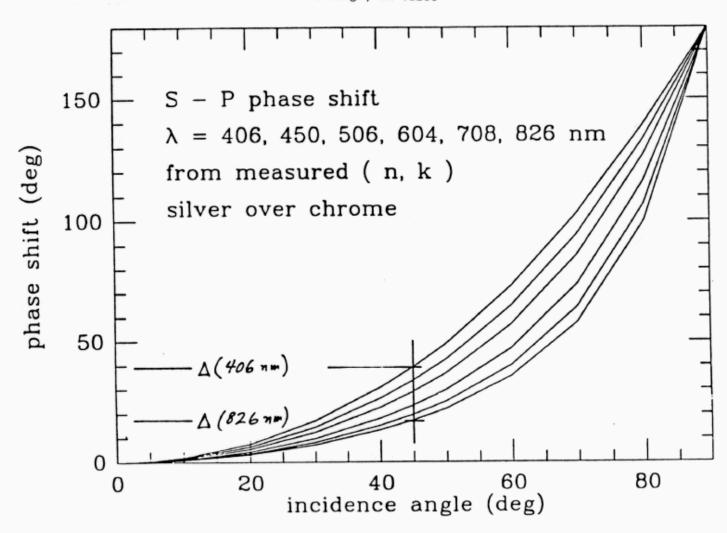
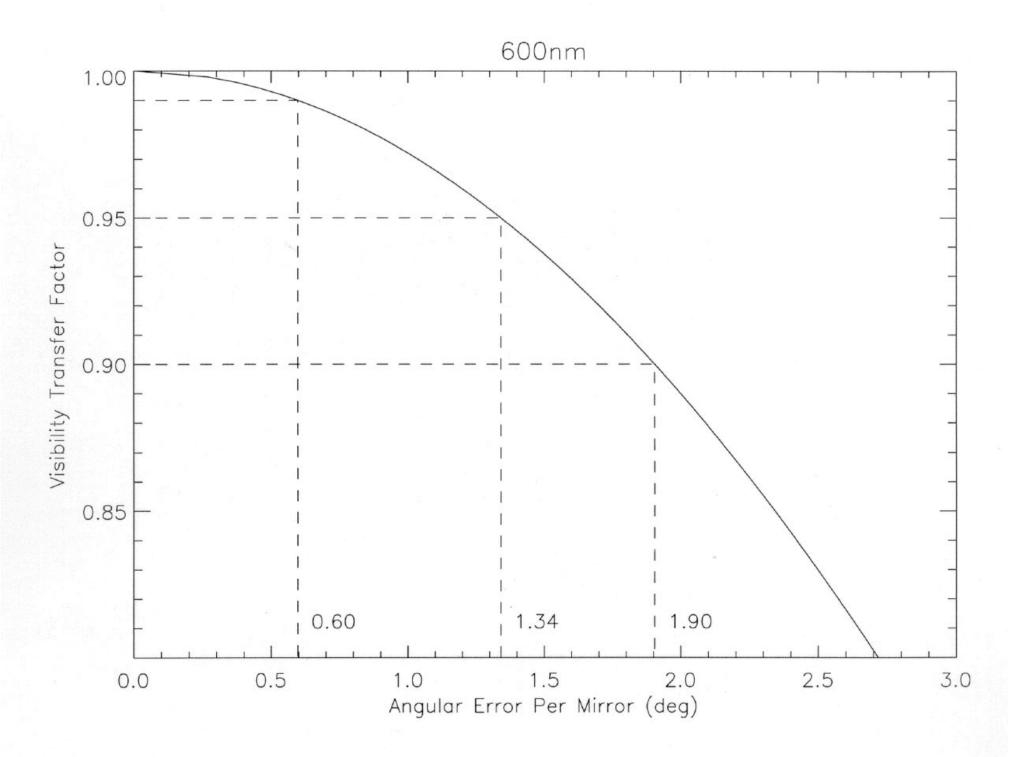
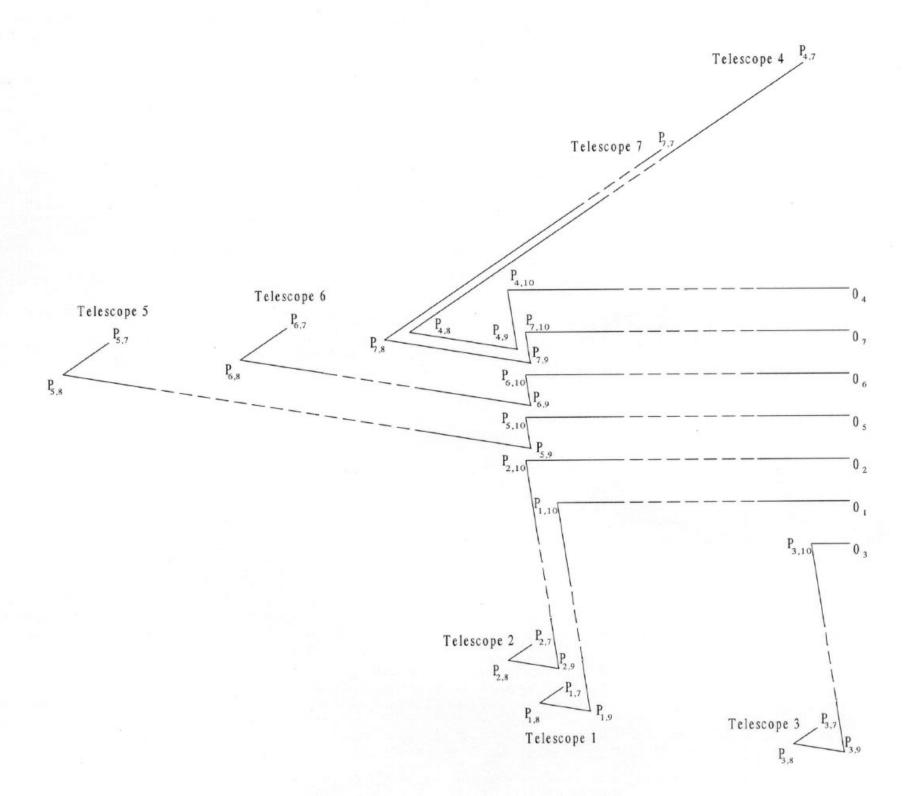


Fig. 2. Calculated s-p phase shift, based on measurements of the complex index of refraction of a silver-over-chrome mirror, at 6 wavelengths.





Dispersion

- Problems exist even with vacuum delay lines.
- Easy to model, harder to model accurately.
- Makes it more important to have a calibrator close to your source.
- · Vers much a proslem à Fiboso
- · Correctable T glass.

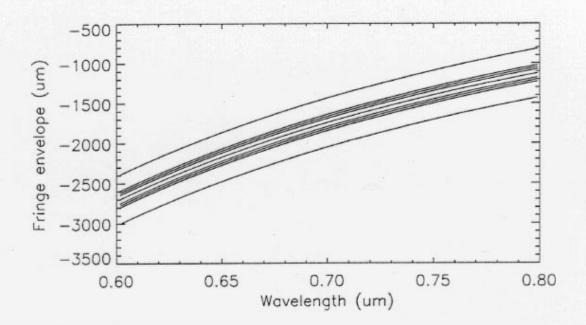


Figure 4: The fringe envelope for a baseline of 350m and a zenith angle of 50 degrees without dispersion correction. The central line represents the center of the envelope, the next pair of lines the 95% point, the next pair the 90% point, the next pair the 85% point and the outermost lines the first zero.

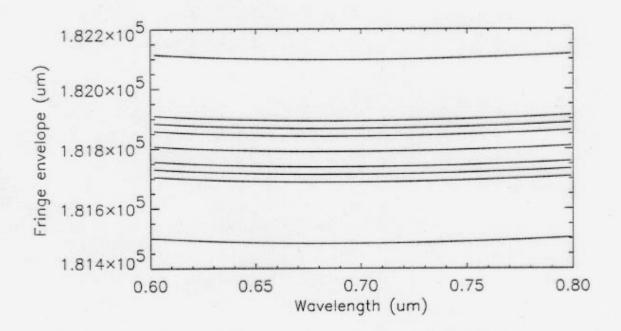


Figure 5: The fringe envelope for a baseline of 350m and a zenith angle of 50 degrees with dispersion correction. The central line represents the center of the envelope, the next pair of lines the 95% point, the next pair the 90% point, the next pair the 85% point and the outermost lines the first zero.

Internal Optical Quality

- Telescope mirror deformations. These are hopefully the same, or similar, in each arm.
- Each optic will introduce a phase variance σ_{ϕ}^2 .
- Do they really add in an RMS way? Are they truly random?
- Total visibility transfer factor is related to total Strehl and so $\eta \approx \exp(-\sigma_{\phi}^2)$.
- This is something you can (hopefully) measure in order to calibrate it out.

Diffraction

- \bullet Long paths \longrightarrow diffraction.
- \bullet Differential paths \longrightarrow differential diffraction.
- Beam reducers make the problem worse.
- The combination of atmospheric turbulence and diffraction is not well understood (at least not be me!).

DIFFRACTION EFFECTS

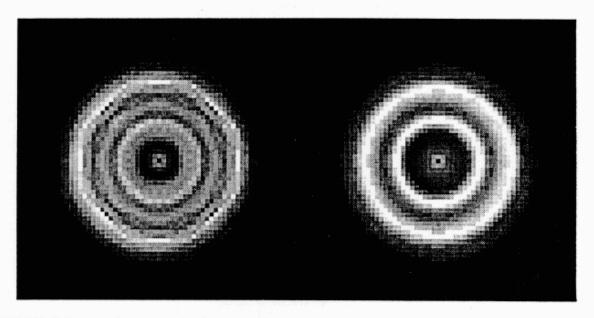


FIGURE E.3. Intensities for beams at 2.2 μm of 1 m diameter reduced to 125 mm and propagated for 100 m (left) and 200 m (right). Beams are apodized with $\Delta n = 8$ cm.

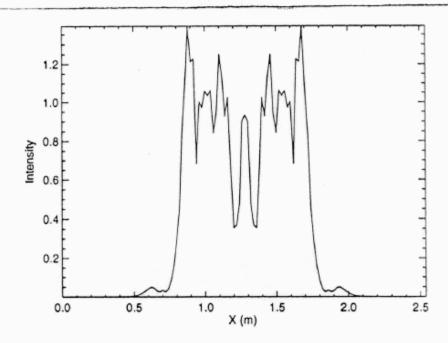


FIGURE E.2. Intensity cross-section for beam at 2.2 μm of 1 m diameter reduced to 125 mm and propagated for 100 m.

- Located at an existing observatory.
- Baselines of up to several hundred meters.
- Probably a N-S baseline initially.
- All beams brought to a central location through evacuated pipes before being directed to the lab.
- Lab building located downwind of telescopes or hidden from view.
- Involves many tons of reinforced concrete.
- Siderostats housed at fixed stations in a partially redundant array.

(continued)

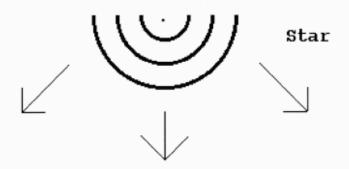
- Siderostats followed immediately by
 - Beam-reducing telescope (afocal)
 - Star acquisition camera
 - Wavefront tip/tilt compensating mirror
- Quadrant detector for tip/tilt system located inside lab, just prior to the beam combiner.
- Delay line is most obvious feature of lab.
- Lab is an air conditioned building-within-abuilding for thermal control.
- Delay line trolley includes a momentum compensated piezo and a voice coil actuator.

(continued)

- Main beam-combining table includes:
 - Quadrant detectors for tip/tilt sensing.
 - System of mirrors and beam-splitters to combine the beams.
 - **6** One output beam is used for white-light fringe detection: aperture stop, lens, filter, APD.
 - One output beam is dispersed in a spectrometer: aperture stop, prism, lens, array detector.
 - 6 If your wavelength is 2.2 microns you also have spatial filters.

(continued)

- Main table also has alignment optics:
 - Pinhole to serve as an alignment fiducial, illuminated by
 - HeNe laser used for alignment out to the siderostats.
 - Tungsten lamp for an artificial star and channeled spectrum.
 - 2 Theodolite equiped with an illuminated target and a CCD video camera.
 - **8** Numerous corner-cubes for autocollimation.
- White paper targets, cardboard, duct tape...

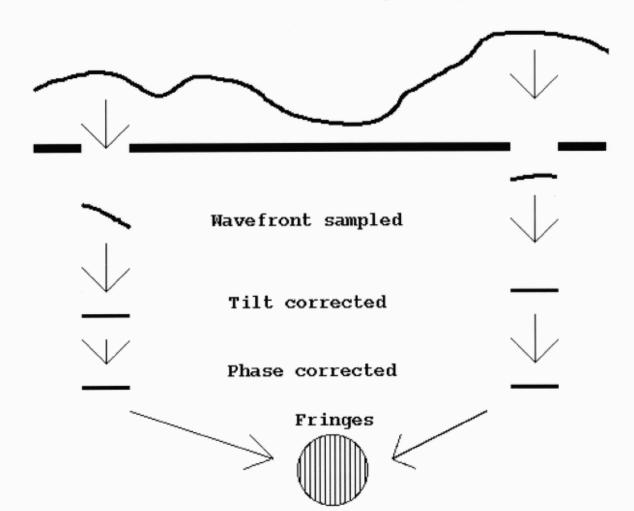


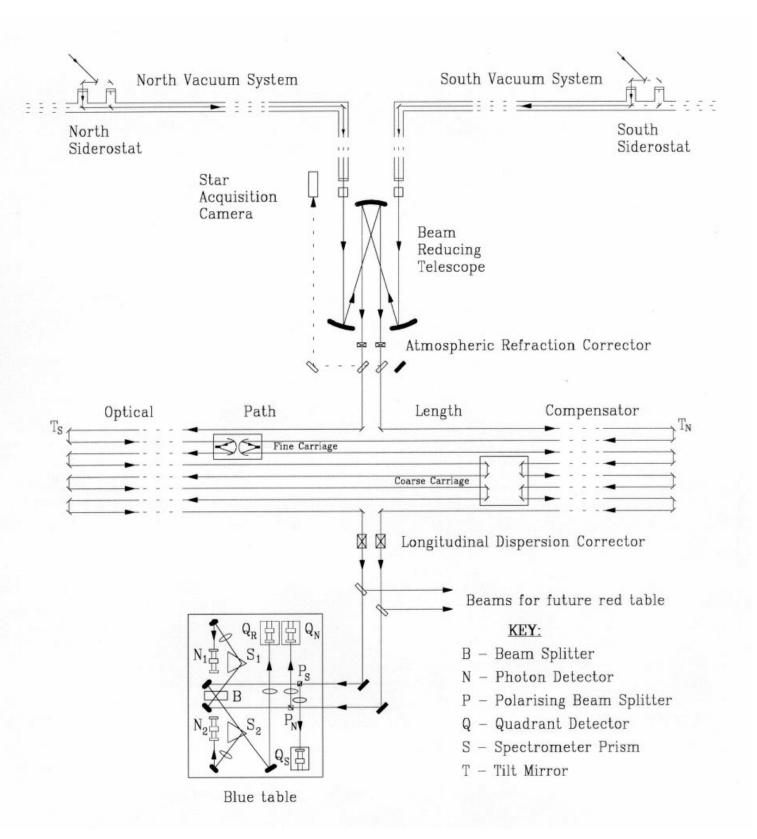
Waves travel through space

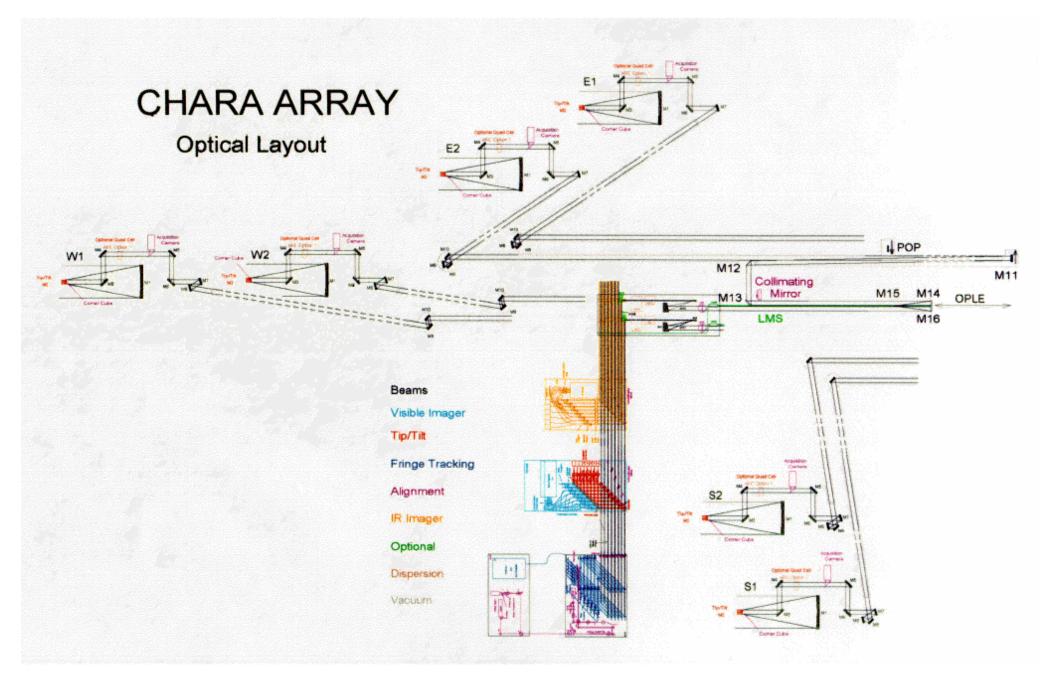
Appear as 'straight' wavefronts



Wavefront distorted by atmosphere







IOTA

